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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the effect of relocation on 309 children of randomly selected employees of 10 Fortune 500 corporations. Even through U.S. corporations transfer over 400,000 households annually, there is little research on the effects of such moves on employees' children. This study tested hypotheses drawn from child development theory regarding the effect of environmental stability on children's adjustment in the social, behavioral, school, physical health, and self-confidence domains. The study's longitudinal design made it possible to contrast the effect of a move and the effect of normal maturational changes on adjustment in each developmental domain. Results revealed no short-term negative effect of moving, and no negative effect of frequent moves. But the study did suggest that number of moves positively affected mobile children's behavioral adjustment and that fathers' well-being was an important predictor of mobile children's behavior. Findings supported the theoretical perspective that children who have coped well with prior environmental changes in a corporate relocation are best prepared to cope with subsequent relocations. (Author/RH)

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Corporate Mobility: Effects on Children

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Abstract

This study investigated the effect of relocation on the children of employees of Fortune 500 corporations (n=309). Even though U.S. corporations transfer over 400,000 households annually (Kiechel, 1987), there is little research on the effects of such moves on employees' children. This study tested hypotheses drawn from child development theory regarding the effect of environmental stability on children's adjustment in five domains: social, behavioral, school, physical health, and self-confidence. The study's longitudinal design made it possible to contrast the effect of a move versus normal maturational changes on adjustment in each of these developmental domains. The sample of 309 children from families selected randomly from 10 fortune 500 corporations made it possible to generalize beyond particular cases. The results showed no short term negative effect of moving, and no negative effect of frequent moves. The study did, however, suggest that number of moves positively effected mobile children's behavioral adjustment and that father's well-being was an important predictor of mobile children's behavior. The results supported the theoretical perspective that suggests that children who have coped well with prior environmental changes, in the form of a corporate relocation, are best prepared to cope with subsequent relocations.

Corporate Mobility: What Are The Effects On The Children

Despite the fact that U.S. corporations transfer over 400,000 households annually (Fortune, 1987) there is little research on the effect of such moves on the children. Much of what passes for knowledge in this field is based on journalistic accounts of particular cases. While there are frequent articles in the popular press describing the negative effect of corporate mobility on the family, there are few serious research studies on this subject.

In contrast, the purpose of this longitudinal study of 309 children is to investigate both the parents' and the children's own perspectives of the effect of corporate mobility on children's adjustment. The study tests for the effect of a move versus normal maturational changes in adjustment over an eighteen month period,

Literature Review and Testable Hypotheses

Child development theory is unclear about the effect of environmental change on healthy adjustment. Several developmental theorists emphasize the importance of environmental stability (Erikson, 1950; 1968; Garbarino, 1987; Mead, 1934; Piaget, 1934), though none focus narrowly on the effect of corporate mobility. Erikson (1950; 1968), Garbarino (1987), and Mead (1934) imply that both family and socio-cultural stability are important factors in healthy child development. According to Garbarino (1987), in addition to the individual uniqueness that a child brings to the developmental process, the child brings a "habitat" which includes family, friends, neighborhood, and school. Threats to the

development process may be direct, for example, problems with physical health, or due to the absence of normal and predictable social opportunities because of instability in one or more aspects of the child's habitat (Garbarino, 1987).

Other theorists assume that a child's environment is constantly changing and that healthy child development is a continuing process of adaptation to a changing environment (Piaget, 1934). Erikson, despite his emphasis on environmental stability, also recognizes that a healthy personality is developed by maintaining life's "outer and inner dangers" and that it is through experimentation and new experiences that adolescents develop a good mental health (Peskin and Livson, 1972). Evidence for the positive developmental effects of dealing with environmental change were found by Elder (1974) studying children of the depression. He concluded that those who experienced stress during adolescence and successfully coped with it were better prepared for the ultimate stresses that occurred later in their lives than those who were not challenged by stressful situations in their childhood.

This theorizing suggests two perspectives regarding the effect of corporate mobility on the healthy development of children: First, that corporate moves are detrimental to healthy child development because they disrupt the child's social environment; alternatively, that children who adjust well to corporate moves will be better able to adapt to future environmental change. The empirical research on children and mobility has found little evidence to support either theoretical perspective.

Kroger (1980), relying on theory from Mead and Erikson, hypothesized that residential mobility causes adolescents to develop a negative self-concept, and the greater the distance of the move, the more damaging the effect. Her correlational data, collected post hoc, showed no relationship between moving or distance moved and self-concept. Barrett and Noble (1973), compared parental reports of children's behavior (measured by the Louisville Behavior Check List) after a move with the instrument's norms. They reported that mobile children did not differ from their peers in aggression, learning disability, inhibition, or total disability. They attributed past reports of the negative effect of moving to sample differences and generalizations from clinical reports.

The most comprehensive study of mobility and children is Orthner, Giddings, and Quinn's (1986) investigation of 2,400 adolescents in military and civilian families. The children were representatively sampled from five communities across the United States. This study can be probed for information about adolescents in general, differences between girls and boys, and differences within the mobile civilian and military sub-samples. They found that "feelings of alienation increase over the course of adolescence" (p. 18); and contrary to some adolescent theory, teens' greatest life satisfaction came from both friend and family relationships. Girls, both civilian and military, scored lower than boys on most of the adjustment measures. Girls from military families scored the lowest and were suggested to have the most

problematic psychological profiles; military boys were the most psychologically healthy of the subgroups.

Orthner et al., concluded that relocation is the most significant adjustment adolescents routinely make. They did not find that the frequent moves of the military adolescents increased their adaptive skills. Just the opposite, adolescents who moved frequently were just as likely to experience problematic adjustments as those who moved less often. However, healthy relationships with their parents seemed to mitigate the adolescents' stress. They concluded that the stronger the relationship with either parent, the better the overall relationships in the family and the more the youth were able to adapt to the changes they experienced in their lives. (p. 28).

In contrast, Mann (1972),in a retrospective study, found that college students who had moved as children had a greater tolerance for new or uncertain situations and exhibited less anxiety in both acute and chronic stressful situations than their stable counterparts. Mobile male students also placed greater value on autonomy and independence and in being adaptive than did stable male students. There are many differences between the Mann and Orthner et al. samples that may account for these different findings: cohort, socio-economic class, frequency of moves, and military culture. In yet another study of young children of military families (Marchant and Medway, 1987), no negative relationships were found with frequency of moving. The most mobile children were actually more involved in social activities than

those who were less mobile.

As noted earlier, research regarding the effects of mobility on children is nearly non-existent (See Stroh and Brett, 1989). While most studies express concern that moving affects children's welfare, current review findings present inconclusive results which are open to alternative interpretations. Inadequate research designs and sampling techniques leave many questions unanswered. However, as corporations continue to use geographic mobility as a necessary requirement for employees' career development, and as many families are re-evaluating the worth of such a move, we must begin to give explicit, systematic, and theoretical attention to understanding the effects of mobility on children's development. This research study is one such attempt at extending the literature in this field.

Research Hypotheses and Model

This study tests for the effects of a child's prior level of adjustment to a move on subsequent adjustment, a generalized short-term effect of mobility, as well as frequency of moves on five indices of child development while controlling for alternative factors that may affect adjustment. The five domains of child development investigated were: social, behavioral, school, physical health, and a child's self-confidence. These domains encompass the self and aspects of the habitat that Garbarino (1987) notes is the context in which child development occurs. The control factors used in this study include the demographic characteristics of age and sex, and indicators of family stability

including life events (Holmes and Rahe, 1967), and mother and father's well-being (Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976).

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Children who are well adjusted after a prior move will continue that process of healthy adaptation into the medium term future (eighteen months), regardless of whether or not they move during that period.

This might be because their prior successful coping with a move better prepares them for coping with a subsequent move.

Hypothesis 2: The more frequently a child has moved, the less well adjusted.

This may be due to the sheer number and accumulated effects of environmental disruptions. It is important, however, to test for a possibility of interaction effects between number of moves and other independent measures on adjustment (e.g. age, sex, mother/father well-being).

Hypothesis 3: Family stability is a positive and significant factor in children's adjustment.

This may be because the family is the primary environment for the young child and an important source of life satisfaction for adolescents.

Hypothesis 4: Parental well being will compensate for the negative effect of moving, so that children who move or who have moved frequently and have a well adjusted parent will be more well adjusted than children with less well adjusted parents and where family social support is less likely to be available.

Hypothesis 5: Adolescents will have greater difficulty adjusting to a recent move than younger children.

This might be because of their greater dependence on social and peer relationships broken by the relocation.

The general model in Figure 1 provides a basis for testing the hypotheses while controlling for alternative factors like time since the last move, age and sex that may be correlated with the moving variables and adjustment.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Method

Study Design

The study captures a naturally occurring quasi-experiment. Data were collected at two time periods eighteen months apart. In the interim, some of the families of children in the study moved once again (see Figure 2). The time 1 data were collected from parents prior to any knowledge of a possible move. Mothers completed a structured questionnaire describing each child separately. Both parents completed a questionnaire assessing their own attitudes and experiences. The research design introduces a potential bias since we have multiple children using mothers' perspectives on adjustment. That is, one might suggest that mothers might not be able to distinguish between their own adjustment and the child's adjustment. Furthermore,the mothers

might respond the same for all of her children. This potential problem will be dealt with in the analysis portion of this study.

Insert Figure 2 about here

The Sample

Sampling of the study (Brett, 1983), in which this study of the effect of moving on children was embedded, was designed so that the results could be generalized to employees who work for large U. S. corporations and their families. Five hundred employees, 50 from each of 10 Fortune 500 corporations, all of whom had moved at least once in the prior 2 to 5 years, were randomly selected from a list of 3,000 names supplied by the 10 companies. Three hundred and fifty families, a response rate of 70 percent, knowingly participated in the job transfer study. Approximately 100 of these families moved again between May, 1978 when the first set of data were collected and November, 1979 when the second set of data were collected.

The sample for this study is 309 children from 100 families in the larger study who had children between the ages of 6 and 18 and living at home. In all cases the father was the transferred employee and in most cases the family is a traditional family with the father working and the mother not working (70% non-working mothers). The majority of the parents were college educated. All families were two parent families with above average incomes (See

Table 1-1).

Insert Table 1-1 about here

There were a total of 309 children in the study. All of these children had moved at least once, the average child had moved 3 times. Twenty-nine of the families with children moved once again during the study. These mobile families have 45 children (31 boys and 14 girls) leaving 264 children (137 boys and 127 girls) who did not move during the study. Table 1-2 presents the sample of children broken down by age, sex, and move/not move during the study.

Insert Table 1-2 about here

Measures

Questions about children's adjustment were based on those used by Barrett and Noble (1973) and Douvan and Adelson (1966). Questions about children's social, behavioral, and school adjustment and physical health were reduced to four dimensions using both principal components analysis and analysis of reliability. Items were selected for a dimension if they loaded together in the principal components analysis during at least one time period, made conceptual sense, and contributed to the overall scale's reliability. Items were standardized before being summed

to form a scale, because of their varying response formats.

The questions ultimately used for each scale are in Appendix 1 along with the scale means, standard deviations and coefficient alphas. The operational definitions are as follows:

Social adjustment. The social adjustment scale measures the parent's perception of the child's sociability. Sample questions include: How frequently does you child have friends over? How easy is it for you child to make friends? These questions are similar to ones used in research studying peer social support (Hirsch and Rapkin, 1987; Barrett and Noble, 1973).

Behavioral adjustment. The behavioral adjustment scale measures the parent's perceptions of the severity and frequency of behavior problems with the child. Sample questions include: How frequent are behavior problems? Response choices are: 1) seldom, less than once a month; 2) occasionally, several times a month; 3) frequently, at least once a week; 4) very frequently, once a day; 5) all the time. Has the child received any professional help for behavior problems? These questions are consistent with those used by Douvan and Adelson (1966) and Small (1988) to measure problem behavior.

School adjustment. The school adjustment scale measures the parent's perceptions of how well the child is adjusted to school. Sample questions include: How well does your child like school? What is your child's attitude toward school? Similar items were used by Orthner et al. (1986).

Physical health. The physical health scale measures the

child's overall physical well-being. Sample questions include: How many days has your child missed from school this year due to illness? Which response best describes you child's overall health? Response choices are: 1) poor, 2) fair, 3) average, 4) good, 5) excellent.

Self confidence. This scale measures the parent's perception of the child's self-concept. The questions were asked only in the time 2 survey, so were analyzed separately from the others. Sample questions include: How much self-confidence does your child have? How flexible is your child? Response choices are: 1) a lot, 2) some, 3) a little, 4) none.

Demographic characteristics. The demographic characteristics measured were age and sex.

Family stability. The indicators of family stability were time 4 measures of life events. The life events questions used in this study were taken from a scale developed by Holmes and Rahe (1967). Questions referring to a relocation were dropped. The occurrence of other events, whether positive or negative was summed to form a life events measure for the family.

Mother/father's well-being. The well-being scales were constructed by summing time 4 answers to questions from Campbell, Converse, and Rodgers' (1976) measure of the quality of life, Rosenberg's (1962) measure of self-esteem, and Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Shoek and Rosenthal's (1964) measure of role conflict.

Environmental stability. The indices of environmental stability were move/not move during the period of the study and

frequency of moves. Time since last move was included as a control variable, since all the children in the sample had moved at least once prior to the beginning of the study.

Analysis

As noted in the section on research design, there are two potential biases in having mothers' reports on their children's adjustment. One bias would occur if the mother failed to distinguish among her children in describing their adjustment. A second bias would occur if the mother failed to distinguish between her own adjustment and that of her children. If either or both of these biases were present in the data, mothers' well-being, a measure of mothers' own adjustment and a surrogate for individual differences between mothers, would be expected to be correlated with all five children's adjustment measures. Correlations between mothers' well-being and the adjustment variables were reviewed to assess whether the bias exists.

Insert Table 2-1 about here

The correlations in Table 2-1 indicate that the mothers' reporting bias is not a problem in this study. Mothers' well-being was correlated with time 4 social adjustment ($r=.24$, $p < .001$), and self confidence ($r=.20$, $p < .001$) which are themselves intercorrelated ($r=.57$, $p. < .001$). But, there is no relationship between mothers' well-being and time 4 measures of behavior,

physical health, or school adjustment. These findings suggest that mothers are able to distinguish both among their children and between themselves and their children's adjustment.

Linear and moderated regression analysis were used to test the hypotheses. Separate analyses were run for each of the five domains of adjustment: social, behavioral, school, physical health, and self-confidence skills. The scales measuring these adjustment domains were expected to have low to moderate intercorrelations, justifying separate treatment, because factor analysis was used in the process of scale construction. Table 2-1 correlations note the relationship among these variables at time 2 were low to moderate, except for the correlations between self-efficacy skills, and social/school adjustment ($r = .57$, $p < .001$; $.35$, $p < .001$, respectively).

Age, sex, and time since last moved are control variables for this study. By including these variables in the regression equation, number of moves does not have to be adjusted for the child's age. Therefore, significant results, for example number of moves, are not biased by a covariation with age.

Insert Table 2-2 about here

Results

The results of this study show no evidence of a short term

negative effect of moving on children's adjustment. There is strong support of hypothesis 1 in the results summarized in Table 2-2. Children who were well adjusted after a prior move continued that process of healthy adaptation regardless of whether their lives were disrupted by a subsequent move. The best predictor of time 4 social, behavioral, school, and physical adjustment, regardless of whether or not the child moved sometime between the two data collections, was how well adjusted the child was 18 months previously. (Beta = .35, $p < .001$; .53, $p < .001$, .41 $p < .001$, and .54, $p < .001$ respectively). When controlling for premove adjustment, there is no effect of moving in any of the adjustment domains. Children who moved during the study did not suffer significantly greater adjustment problems or make significantly greater adjustment gains than children who did not move during the study.

Furthermore, there were no significant interactions between move/not move and prior adjustment. Thus, children who were poorly adjusted after their previous move were not able to use the move to start over and make adjustment gains. Children who were well adjusted after their prior move did not show adjustment losses associated with a subsequent move in any of the adjustment domains.

Table 2-2 also shows that contrary to hypothesis 2, there was no negative effect of frequency of moves on adjustment when controlling for age. Children who had moved more frequently relative to their age were no more or less adjusted than those who

had moved less frequently.

We also tested the possibility that the frequency of moving had a nonlinear effect on adjustment, considering that the children who had moved infrequently and very frequently might be less well adjusted than those whose moves were moderately frequent. Table 2-3 shows that the only nonlinear effect of the number of moves was on behavioral adjustment. (Beta = .25, $p < .05$). A plot of the data revealed that there were a few children in the sample reported as having behavior problems. None of these children were frequent movers.

Insert Table 2-3 about here

It is important to note that this nonlinear relationship present in the full sample could be interpreted to suggest that parents who recognize their children's relatively severe behavior problems, may be reluctant to move frequently. This self-selection issue may be an important shortcoming of a study on mobility, suggesting that the resultant positive sample allow results to show mobility to have a positive or neutral effect on children's adjustment, when in fact it may be that only those who are initially more well adjusted who will accept transfers. For this particular sample, paired group t-tests show no significant differences at the pre-test for this measure, suggesting no initial differences in adjustment between the control and experimental groups studied. Perhaps this threat of a self-selection bias

supports the use of a control group, as used in this study, who have themselves moved at least once.

The next step was to test for significant interactions of the independent variables and number of moves. Table 2-4 shows there was an interaction between move/not move and number of moves in the Behavioral Model. Consequently, these findings make an important contribution in understanding the non-linear relationship of number of moves in this model. For movers in the sample, there is a positive, linear relationship between number of moves and behavior adjustment. Increased mobility is associated with positive short-term effects in a mobile child's behavior.

Yet, for the non-moving children in the sample, although not significant, increased mobility is negatively related to behavioral adjustment. When this interaction variables is entered into the equation, the significant curvilinear relationship disappears. Consequently, since the negative relationship between number of moves and the non mobile children is not significant, these findings do not show support for hypothesis 2. Rather, the data suggest that frequent moving has short-term positive affects on the moving children's behavior.

Insert Table 2-4 about here

Family stability as measured in this study was not a

significant predictor of children's adjustment, nor was there a family stability by move interaction, thereby failing to support hypothesis 3 in this study. Consequently, there was no exacerbating effect of other family life events on the ,moving children in this sample.

Mother's well-being is important for a child's social adjustment and self-confidence, regardless of whether they made a move or not, according to the results in Table 2-2 (Beta = .19, p <.001; and .16, p <.01 respectively). Interaction effects for parental well-being and the move/not move variable were also examined. Table 2-4 notes that for the movers only in this sample, fathers' well-being was an important predictor of children's behavioral adjustment (Beta= .15, p < .01). These findings support hypothesis 4 and extend the findings of Orthner et al. (1986) that suggested a supportive parent may be instrumental in ensuring a child's healthy adjustment. Here a psychologically healthy, supportive parent (mother) was found to be important for a child's social adjustment and self-confidence regardless of whether they made a recent move or not, and fathers' well-being was found to be a compensating factor for mobile children in the midst of an environmental change.

Adolescents were less well adjusted socially than younger children, as indicated by the significant beta coefficient for age in the social adjustment equation in Table 2-2 (Beta = -.20, p <.001). The finding is true for both mobile and nonmobile teens in the sample. This result is not surprising given the vast

empirical research and theorizing identifying adolescents' problems with peer and social adjustment. What is more interesting in our results is that while age has a significant, negative, univariate correlation with social and school adjustment and self-confidence (Table 2-1), in the regression results (Table 2-2), when controlling for other factors going on in the children's lives, age is only significantly related to social adjustment.

There was, also, no significant interaction between moving and age indicating that adolescents had no greater difficulty adjusting to a recent move than other younger children. Both the regression and the moderated regression findings suggest that while moving adolescent children may be difficult, it is no more difficult than coping with other normal maturational and social problems encountered by stable adolescents.

Discussion

The results of this study indicate that environmental instability in the form of a corporate move has little short-term impact on children in five developmental adjustment domains: social, behavioral, school, physical health, and self-confidence. Children who were well adjusted after a prior move were also well adjusted after a subsequent move. While frequent moving benefitted the moving children's behavior in the study, non-significant findings suggested frequent moving was negatively related to behavior adjustment for the non-mobile children in the sample. Further research is needed to sort out this phenomenon.

All in all the results are consistent with other empirical studies of children's adjustment: the best predictor of future adjustment was prior adjustment, mother's well-being was associated with children's social adjustment and self-confidence, adolescents are less well adjusted socially than younger children (Orthner, et al., 1986). The results are also consistent with the published empirical data on mobility and children: children recently experiencing a move are as well adjusted as children who have had a longer period of post move adjustment (Barrett and Noble, 1973; Mann, 1972). Like Orthner, et al.(1986), this study found that frequency of moving is related to adjustment. For this study, the relationship between children's behavioral adjustment and number of moves was not a simple, linear relationship. Movers in the study benefitted from previous moves and as the number of moves increased, adjustment was enhanced as well. This was not true, however for the non-movers in the sample.

Data also support other studies' findings that report significant correlations between parental well-being and healthier children's adjustment (see Small, 1988). In particular, this study suggests mothers' well-being is an important factor for both mobile and non-mobile children while fathers' well-being is an important component to children's behavioral adjustment to a recent move.

The results offer no support for the theoretical perspective that environmental instability in the form of a corporate relocation is damaging to healthy child development. Yet, the study does point to longer term negative effects of frequent moves

on behavioral adjustment. Further research is needed to sort out this phenomenon.

While the study design rules out many threats to validity, two limitations of the study should be noted. First, the number of children who moved during the study was relatively small. This means that short-term effects of the move on adjustment would have to be relatively large to be significant. Likewise, interaction effects would have to be large to be significant. The relatively small number of children who moved during the study, however, does not affect the interpretability of the results regarding the frequency of moves, since all children had moved at least once and the average child had moved three times.

The second limitation of the study is that the data are the perceptions of the children's parents. Some researchers have noted that when responding to questionnaires, parents underestimate their children's problems (Barrett and Noble, 1973) or overestimate their ability (Miller, 1988). In this particular study, there may have been an incentive to do so. Children have little or no influence on parents' decisions to accept or reject transfers (Brett, 1980). In this study, parents may have felt guilty about having made an unwilling child move and consequently be unwilling or unable to perceive adjustment problems related to a move. While this threat to validity cannot be ruled out, parents of children who moved would have had to be very systematic in their bias for it to be reflected in all five adjustment domains.

A third limitation of the study is the lack of a comparison

group of children who had not moved at all. The study does not rule out the possibility that there are differences between the children in this sample and children of a comparable age and socio-economic status who have never moved. Yet, as one can imagine, the inherent differences between corporate families who never move and those that have made a move suggest this study's use of a one-time mobility control group may be the most appropriate. That is, one could suggest that those families requested to make job transfers may be those already better adjusted and also better able to cope.

Of course it would have been nice to also have school grades, standardized scores on achievement and psychological tests, etc. Unfortunately, such were not available.

The results do clearly support the theoretical perspective that children who experience and successfully cope with environmental change are better suited to manage subsequent changes. The best predictor of subsequent adjustment in each developmental domain was prior adjustment. A major question raised by this research is how a move disrupts children's activities and exactly what children and their parents do to ease the move-associated transitions to new schools, neighborhoods, communities, and friends has yet to be explored.

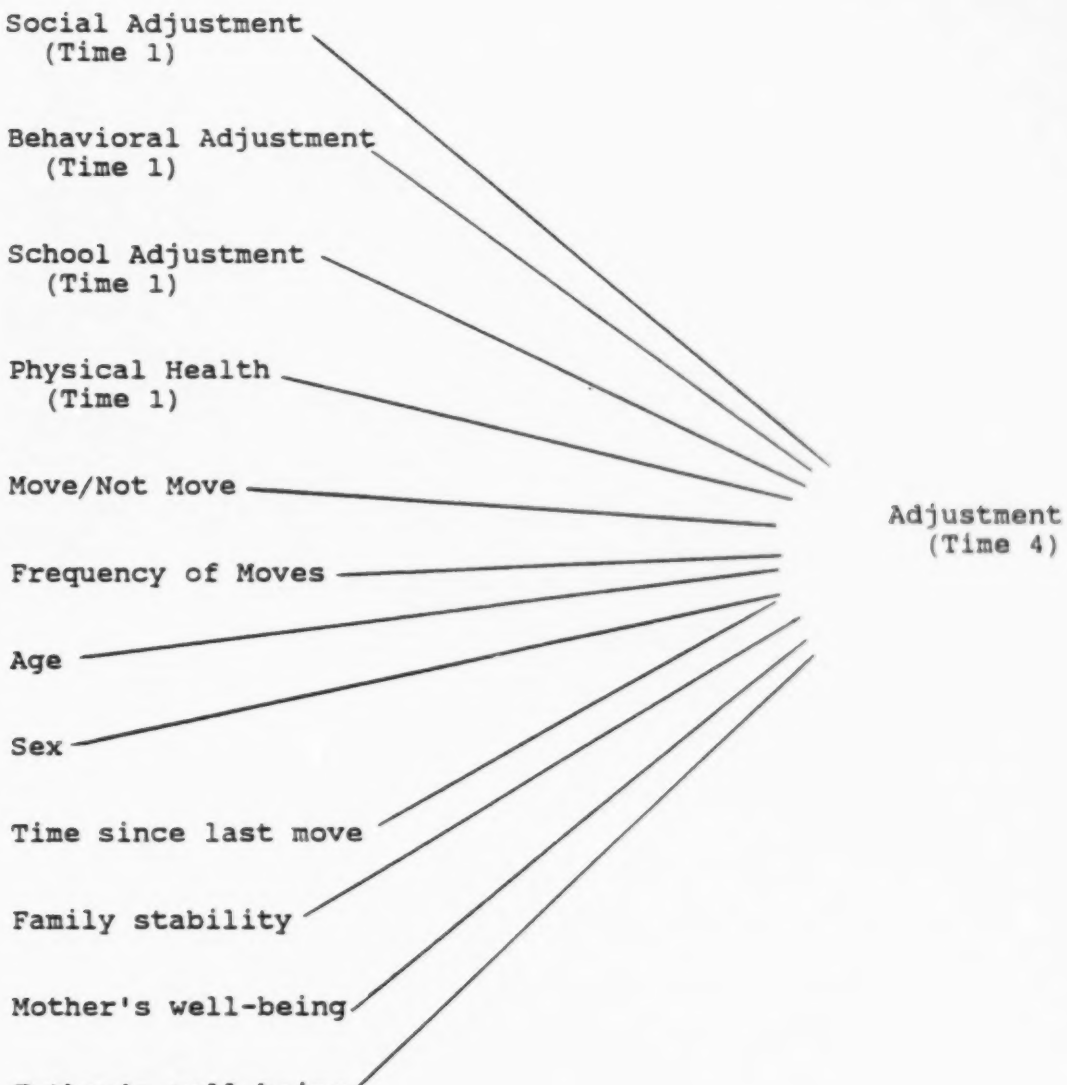

Figure 1. Model of factors affecting children's adjustment.

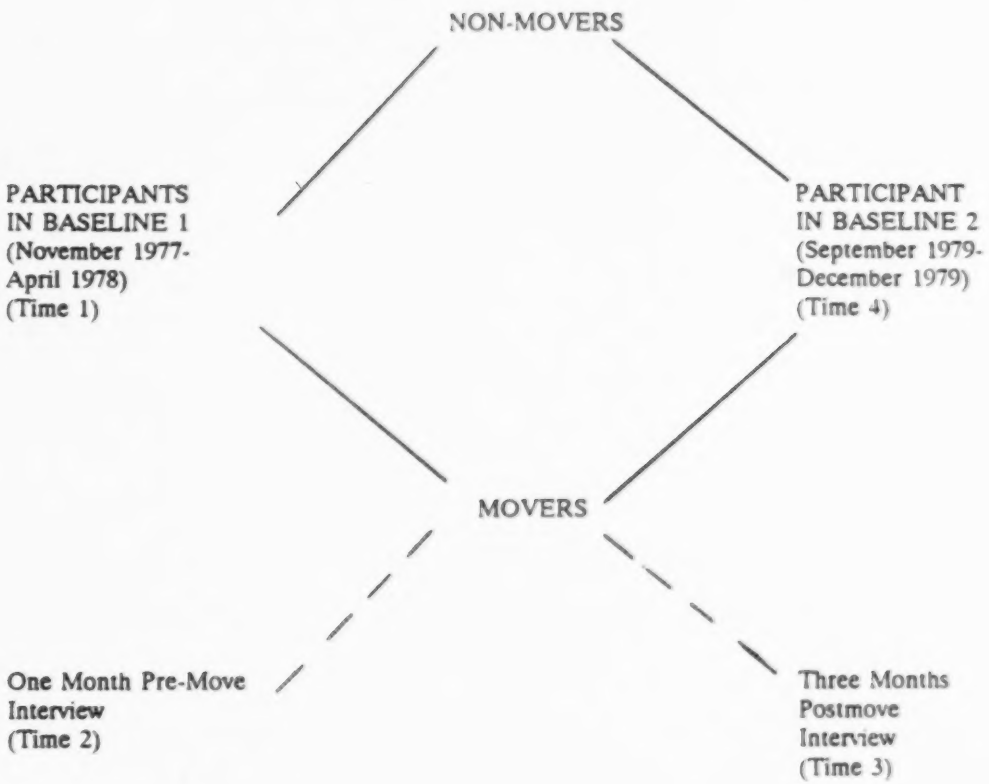
NON-MOVERS
PARTICIPANTS IN BASELINE 1 (November 1977-April 1978) (Time 1)
PARTICIPANT IN BASELINE 2 (September 1979-December 1979) (Time 4)
MOVERS
One Month Pre-Move Interview (Time 2)
Three Months Postmove Interview (Time 3)

Figure 2 Longitudinal Design of Study Illustrating Movers and Non-Movers

Table 1-1

Characteristics of Parents

Characteristics	% Mothers	% Fathers
Age		
30 years or younger	6.7	4.4
31-35	48.9	46.7
36-40	24.4	28.9
41-45	6.7	6.7
46-50	13.3	13.3
Education Level		
High School	16.3	0.0
Some College	37.2	24.4
College Degree	39.5	55.6
Masters Degree	7	20.0
Employment Status		
Working	30.2	100
Non-working	69.8	0
Income in 1979		
not working	69.8	0
5,000 or less	23.2	0
6,000 - 10,000	2.3	0
11,000 - 15,000	4.7	0
16,000 - 25,000	0	0
26,000 - 30,000	0	15.6
31,000 - 35,000	0	17.8
36,000 - 40,000	0	22.2
41,000 - 45,000	0	33.3
46,000 - 50,000	0	4.4
51,000 - 55,000	0	6.7

N=100

Table 1-2

Number of Mobile Children Moving and Not Moving during the Study Broken Down by Age and Sex

Total	6-11 Years		12-18 Years		
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Total
Move	20	9	11	5	45
Not move	73	70	64	57	264
Total	93	79	75	62	309

Table 2-1

Correlations of Time 1 and Time 4 Children Development Measures

Variable	Social T1	Behavioral T1	School T_1	Physical health T_1	Social T_4	Behavioral T_4	School T_4	Physical health T^4	Self confidence T_4	Move not/move	Age	Sex	Number of moves	Time since last move	Family stability	Mother's well-being T_4	Father's well-being T_4
Time 1																	
Social	--																
Behavioral	.17**	--															
School	.23***	.31***	--														
Phys. Health	.03	.11*	-.05	--													
Time 4																	
Social	.46***	.18	.22***	.08	--												
Behavioral	.12*	.56***	.20***	.12*	.20***	--											
School	.18**	.23***	.49***	.04	.28***	.33***	--										
Phys. Health	-.11	.01	-.07	.54***	.01	.11*	-.02	--									
Self confidence	.38***	.22***	.30***	.05	.57***	.26***	.35***	.00	--								
Move/not move	.11*	.07	.01	-.12*	-.02	-.02	-.04	-.13*	.03	--							
Age	-.34***	.01	-.33***	.06	-.32***	.04	-.22***	.05	-.22***	.05	--						
Sex	.00	.10	.19***	-.02	-.05	.15**	.24***	-.01	-.22***	.12*	.01	--					
No. of Moves	-.17**	-.02	-.12*	.06	-.12	.01	-.04	.02	.13*	-.28***	.23***	-.07	--				
Time since last move	.01	.03	-.03	-.09	-.01	.06	-.05	.01	-.02	.47***	.21***	.10	-.22***	--			
Time 4																	
Family stab.	-.00	.02	.05	-.11*	-.06	.02	.02	-.08	-.03	-.08	.07	-.03	-.04	.01	--		
Mother's well-being	.13*	-.02	-.14**	-.03	.24***	.07	.06	.07	.20***	.03	-.03	-.06	-.06	.07	.07	--	
Father's well-being	.10	-.00	.13*	.02	.14*	-.02	.07	.09	.10	.03	-.23***	-.08	-.06	.02	.10	.39***	--

Note. Sex is coded 1=boys, 2=girls. Thus, a negative score means boys scored higher while a positive score suggests girls score higher. The move/not move variable is similarly coded, 1=move, 2=not move. Therefore, a negative relationship favors the movers.

n = 309*
*p < .05
**p < .01
***p < .001

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Table 2-2

Beta Coefficients, Multiple Rs, Adjusted R^2s, and F-Values For Children's Time 4 Adjustment Equations

Independent Variables	Time 4 Dependent Variables				
	Social	Behavioral	School	Physicial Health	Self-Efficacy Skills
Time 1					
Social	.35**	.03	.05	-.13**	.28***
Behavioral	.09	.53***	.07	.00	.11*
School	.03	.02	.41***	-.04	.14*
Physical health	.08	.07	.05	.54***	.04
Age	-.20***	.02	-.08	-.02	-.06
Sex	-.05	.09	.17***	.01	.10
Move/not move	-.06	-.01	-.04	-.10	-.00
Number of moves	-.02	.03	.04	-.03	-.05
Time since last move	.05	.04	-.00	.10	-.04
Mother's well-being	.19***	.08	-.00	.07	.16**
Father's well-being	-.03	-.04	.01	.07	-.01
Family stability	.08	.01	.02	-.02	-.04
Multiple R	.55	.58	.54	.58	.49
Adjusted R^2	.28	.31	.29	.31	.24
F	10.79***	12.43***	9.89***	12.40***	7.71***

Note. 1) Move/Not Move is coded 1=move, 2=not move. Therefore, a negative score suggests movers score higher.

2) Sex is coded 1=boys, 2=girls. Therefore, a negative score suggests boys score higher.

N = 309

*p<.05

**p<.01

***p<.001

Table 2-3

Beta Coefficients, Multiple R, Adjusted R^2, and F-Value For Children's Time 4 Behavioral Equation with Number of Moves as Curvilinear

Independent Variables	Behavioral Adjustment
Time 1	
Social	.01
Behavioral	.53***
School	.03
Physical Health	.07
Age	.03
Sex	.10*
Move/Not Move	.00
Number of Moves	-.20
Number of Moves^2	.25*
Time Since Last Move	.02
Mother's well-being	.08
Father's well-being	-.05
Family stability T4	.01
Multiple R	.59
Adjusted R^2	.31
F	11.87***

Note. 1) Move/Not Move is coded 1=move, 0=not move. Therefore, a negative score suggests movers score higher.
2) Sex is coded 1=boys, 2=girls. Therefore, a negative score suggests boys score higher.

N = 309

*p < .05
**p < .01
***p < .001

Table 2-4

Beta Coefficients, Multiple R, Adjusted R^2, and F-Value For Children's Time 4 Behavioral Equation with Father's Well-Being x Move Interaction and Number of Moves x Move/not-move Interaction

Independent Variables	Behavioral Adjustment
Time 1	
Social	.00
Behavioral	.53***
School	.03
Physical Health	.09
Age	.04
Sex	.09*
Move/Not Move	.11
Number of Moves	-.08
Number of Moves x Move/not move	.14*
Time Since Last Move	.10
Mother's well-being	.09
Father's well-being	-.11
Father's well-being x Move/not move	.15*
Family stability T4	.01
Multiple R	.60
Adjusted R^2	.33
F	10.97***

Note. 1) Move/Not Move is coded 1=move, 0=not move. Therefore, a negative score suggests movers score higher.
2) Sex is coded 1=boys, 2=girls. Therefore, a negative score suggests boys score higher.

N = 309

*p < .05
**p < .01
***p < .001

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